

**MANAGER'S PHILOSOPHY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH CAREER
SUCCESS**

by

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DEDICATION

To My Parents, Hosnee and Abd. Razak

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I know that I am always a fighter but without you all, I will give up.

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ABSTRAK

Terdapat banyak faktor yang mempengaruhi kejayaan kerjaya seseorang pengurus. Kajian ini mengkaji kesan falsafah pengurus terhadap kejayaan kerjaya pengurus di Malaysia. Penyelidikan ini juga melihat peranan pembolehubah demografi dan kesannya terhadap falsafah dan kejayaan kerjaya. Data dikutip menerusi soal selidik. Seramai 112 responden telah diperolehi sebagai sampel untuk tujuan kajian ini.

Kajian yang lepas tidak pernah meneliti tentang sumbangan falsafah pengurus terhadap kejayaan kerjaya. Kajian ini telah dijalankan, untuk memahami dengan lebih lanjut tentang perhubungan ini.

Penemuan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa para pengurus di Malaysia lebih banyak memiliki falsafah Theory Y. Seramai 54.5 peratus responden dalam kajian ini memiliki falsafah Theory Y. Sementara itu, umur seseorang pengurus merupakan faktor penting dalam menentukan kejayaan kerjaya seseorang pengurus. Walau bagaimanapun, falsafah pengurus dan pembolehubah demografi selain dari umur tidak mempengaruhi kejayaan kerjaya pengurus di Malaysia.

ABSTRACT

There are many contributing factors to the career success of managers. This study investigates the effect of manager's philosophy on career success of managers in Malaysia. This study also examined the role of demographic variables and its effect to manager's philosophy (Theory X, Theory Y and Theory Z) and career success. Data were collected by means of questionnaire survey. A total of 112 respondents were sampled for the purpose of this study. Past research had not investigated the contribution of manager's philosophy to career success. This study was undertaken to accomplish better understanding of this relationship.

The result of the study suggests that Theory Y is the most predominant philosophy among the Malaysian managers. 54.5 percent of the respondents are more inclined to the Theory Y philosophy. Meanwhile, age is the major significant contributing factor to career success of managers working in Malaysia. However, manager's philosophy and other demographic variables do not contribute significantly to the career success.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

There have been a number of important studies which tried to look at the factors which influence career success. Luthans et al (1988) for example found that successful managers focus on activities, which are different from effective managers. Recent studies showed that type of job position, mentoring and hours worked (Whitely et al, 1991), early career challenges (Kaufman, 1974), education experience and career interruptions (Mills, 1995), gender, marital status and socioeconomic status (Powell, 1988) influenced career success. Recent studies show strong influence of individual and organizational factors on career success.

1.2 Background on Career Success

A study conducted by Deshpande (1996) in a US non profit organization, shows that a majority of the managers believed that successful managers were more ethical than unsuccessful managers and one did not have to compromise one's ethics to succeed in the organization.

Meanwhile, Judge and Bretz (1994) focused on political influence behavior as another factor in predicting career success. The study showed that supervisor focused tactics likened to a strategy of captivating resulted in higher levels of career success while job focused tactics using the self promotion strategy resulted in lower levels of success.

Pfeffer (1981) note: *"...job performance is not a sufficient condition for career advancement in many organizational contexts and may not even be necessary. Social similarities, social background and social contacts are necessary and in many instances sufficient"*.

None of the past studies found anyone success formula for career success which could be applied under all circumstances. However being aware of the factors which could affect one's chances of progression up the corporate hierarchy is crucial. According to Mullins (1996), *"career advancement should involve individual appraisal and counseling. However, care should be taken to avoid giving staff too long or over ambitious career expectations. If these expectations cannot be fulfilled, they may become disillusioned and frustrated."*

1.3 Problem Statement

The problem addressed in this research is:

What is the relationship between socio-demographic variables, managers' philosophy and their career success in Malaysia?

1.4 Purpose of Study

Mc Gregor (1960) *The Human Side of Enterprise* classified two types of management philosophies that shape organizational behavior as well as affect employee motivation. His Theory X postulates that managers perceive

employees as not having any ambition or desire to work and Theory Y postulate that managers see employees as having a need to be challenged and to seek self actualization are still considered substantial theorems for discussing manager profiles. Mc Gregor points out that managers holding either set of assumptions can create self-fulfilling prophecies, situations where subordinates act in ways that confirm the original situation. In fact most of the later models of organizational development and human resources include his constructs.

William Ouchi (1981) introduced Theory Z or the combining of American and Japanese management practices. Ouchi based his Theory Z on studies conducted in American and Japanese organization. In an organization operating on Theory Z principles, one would expect to find:

- A long term employment philosophy
- Slower promotions and more lateral job movements
- Emphasis on career planning and development
- Consensus decision making
- Concern for employee involvement

According to Ouchi, a manager with Z philosophy;

... "went through a subtle and complex analytical process in which he weighed many issues and arguments before coming to his final decision."

Meanwhile Ivancevich et al. (1994) believes that;

The Theory Z approach won't work in every situation, but it encourages managers to consider combining philosophy, methods and tools to create a more effective organization.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between manager's philosophies and career success. Since the direct relationship of manager's philosophies and career success had not been tested before, it would be appropriate to increase understanding of this relationship.

1.5 Scope and Significance of the Study

The organization being studied covered major local and multinational companies. The individual being studied includes the managers and executives.

From this study, the research findings can be used;

- ◆ To develop human resources policies.
- ◆ To contribute to the knowledge understanding more about managers' philosophy.
- ◆ To contribute to the management practice by understanding the relationship between managers' philosophy and career success.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 Manager's Philosophy

McGregor (1960) defined management philosophy as

"Assumptions about human nature and human behavior which influence managerial strategy."

Ivancevich (1994) defined management as people;

"Whether you say, the company has an entirely new management team...you are referring to the people who guide, direct, and thus manage organizations. The word management used in this manner refers to the people (managers) who engage in the manner refers to the people (managers) who engage in the process of management Managers are the people primarily responsible for seeing that work gets done in an organization".

Therefore, it would be appropriate to look at the manager's philosophy as assumptions of his human nature and behavior that effect managerial strategy.

Slocum and Hellriegel (1992) had identified that Theory X and Y under the behavioral model, while Theory Z as cultural forces influencing the organization.

Ivancevich (1994) has classified that Theory Z as the contemporary influences on the evolution of management and Theory X and Y as explanations of human nature have been widely used to understand and shape managerial practices. Managers on the Theory X philosophy tend to view man as "inherently evil, driven by his biological impulses". Theory X manager is a leader who believes in establishing direct controls over his employees. Manager on the Theory Y philosophy tend to view man as "inherently good, driven by his humanism". The Theory Y manager allows workers to discipline

themselves in regards to goal setting and performance standards. While for the manager on the Theory Z philosophy tend to view man as “inherently good nor evil but open to both, driven by his intellect”. The Theory Z manager spends most of his time concentrating on the communication climate as well as the symbolic nature of his environment.

1.6.2 Career Success

Judge and Bretz (1994) defined career success as

“the outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences”

1.7 Organization of the Remaining Chapters

The rest of the chapters are organized as below;

- ◆ Chapter 2 - Review of the Literature
- ◆ Chapter 3 - Theoretical Framework and Research Methodology
- ◆ Chapter 4 - Results of the Study
- ◆ Chapter 5- Discussions and Conclusions

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

For all practical intent and purpose, this study was needed because it was important that individuals be presented with information of how to manage their careers. If not, individuals may form naïve impressions about their own strategies of managing their careers. This may risk damaging their careers. Hence the effect of manager's philosophy on their career success represented an important area of study.

2.2 Career Success

Whitey et al. (1991) studied the influence of a mentor in enhancing an individual's career. The mentor provided guidance and often sheltered or offered protection to the aspiring manager. The study also found that mentoring was a significant predictor of career success. Their study also concluded another variable, hard work as a predictor of career success. Whitey et al. (1991) also found that the type of job position in an organization influenced the success of the manager. The managers who constantly received high exposure and visibility in the organization were the ones normally credited or endowed with promotions. In these situations, managers thrived on opportunities to inflate their ego and enhance their positions through influence. This political behavior acted as a social influence process in which behavior was strategically designed to maximize short and long-term interests (Ferris et al. 1991). This was to be consistent with or at the expense of other interest.

Stepping on others' toes and backstabbing were common political maneuvers in the playing field.

Gandz and Murray (1980) studied perception of political behavior in organization in what they called the experience of workplace politics. They surveyed 428 North American resident graduates and part-time MBA students of a large metropolitan Canadian business school via mail questionnaire and found that three of their ten statements about workplace politics received strong support: that existence of workplace politics was common to most organizations, successful executives have to be good politicians and the higher you went in an organization, the more political the climate became. They also found that powerful executives acted politically, and that you have to be political to get ahead in organizations.

The establishment of a career system in organizations helped individuals manage their careers. London and Stumpf (1982) suggested that the guidelines of career path in an organization certainly helped subordinates manage their career enhancement. However, the support from their supervisors or managers was just as important. This responsibility of the manager would complement the subordinates efforts to determine the necessary career developments needs of the subordinate.

Judge and Bretz (1994) examined the effects of political influence behavior on career success. The sample came from past graduates of industrial relations programs in two large US universities. The method of data used was mail questionnaire. The sample size was 873. Career success was measured by four extrinsic variables: salary, job level, number of promotions with current and number of promotion with career

and two intrinsic variables: job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The political influence variables were supervisor-focused tactics (ingratiating strategy) and job-focused tactics (self-promotion strategy). The results showed that those who used a higher degree of supervisor-focused tactics had a significantly higher degree of extrinsic career success than those who used these tactics less did. However job-focused tactics were negatively correlated with career success. Job tenure and hours of work was also found to be a positive predictor of career success. It was found that the rate of career success decreased with job tenure. From the main effects, it seemed that "apple polishing" was a more effective method of getting ahead than "blowing one's own horn".

Ferris et, al (1989) proposed that tactics such as ingratiation and self-promotion were specific forms of political behavior. Allen et al, (1980) polled managers including CEOs from thirty different organizations and found they used one of the other organizational political tactics in order of preference: attacking or blaming others, use of information, image building, support building for ideas, praising others, power coalitions, associating with the influential and creating obligations/reciprocity. Political influence behavior was shown to significantly affect may human resource outcomes. Past research has shown that political behavior affected performance ratings issued by supervisors and wage increases.

Meanwhile Dr. Nini Yang,(1998) from School of Business, Clayton College in her research, talked about the gender differences in career success. She said that gender differentials in wages and wage growth persist in all industrialized countries. The size of these differentials, however, varies considerably among Western societies.

Comparative research (Blau and Kahn, 1992) on earnings gaps suggests that intercountry differences can be explained by several major factors.

- First are gender-specific factors, including job mobility, job preferences, and skill differences.
- Second are the prices the labor market of each country places on various labor skills and the role of centralized wage-setting institutions in raising pay levels for low-wage employees regardless of gender.

Traditionally, a woman's success was based on how well she fulfilled the typical female roles of child-bearer and rearer, homemaker, and nurturer (Nykodym, Simonitti, Christen, and Kasper, 1987). When a woman is placed in the mother or confidante role in the organization, she is expected to be passive, nurturing and non-critical. Women managers, for example, may be labeled being viewed as symbols of their group rather than as individuals (Kanter, 1977). Stereotypical roles imposed on women tend to create conflicts between their own concepts and others' expectations of a working woman.

Sexual stereotyping is a major obstacle to the professional women's career development and a key source of stress. Being assertive and self-confident at work may cause a woman to be labeled *bossy* whereas men are labeled leaders (Davidson and Copper, 1983). Though both men and women may be caught up in a work family dilemma, a man's work role is allowed to intrude into the family (e.g., dinner delayed because of a meeting), whereas a woman's family role is allowed to intrude into work (e.g., leaving work early to take care of a sick child). This cognitive style of the

reverse order of work-family relationship not only places more stress on women but also accounts for some of the negative myths about women (Gutek, Nakamura, and Nieva, 1981; Pleck, 1977). Numerous studies have found that women managers are frequently subjected to work overload because of pressure to work harder to prove themselves (Larwood and Wood, 1977; Terborg, 1977; Harlan and Weiss, 1980). Many female managers claim they have to be better at their jobs than their male colleagues to succeed. This and credibility testing causes an inability to delegate and excessive overload for women managers. A study of women executives in the U.S. indicated that the skill of delegating is a major problem for American women executives (Thackray, 1979). In their role as managers, and particularly as successful managers, women are found to be characterized more negatively in interpersonal attributes than women typically are by their male counterparts (Heilman, Block, and Martell, 1995).

For Jack J. Baroudi and Magid Igbaria (1995) who examine the differences and similarities in the human capital variables of male and female information systems (IS) workers and the affect these differences have on job outcomes. The human capital variables studied include age, education, organizational and job tenure, and number of years in the IS occupation. They found that even when controlling for the differences in human capital variables, women in IS still tend to be employed at lower levels of the organization, make less money, and have greater intentions to leave the organization.

The study done by Pauline M. Collins, (1994) shows the measurable differences exist in the career success, career satisfaction, and income levels of those

who participate in mentorship compared to those who do not. In addition, the study also provides empirical evidence of differences for social workers in human services settings.

Although the value of mentorship has been widely researched in other professions, little is known about mentorship among social workers. In addition, few studies have empirically addressed the relationship between mentorship and career outcomes. The study by Pauline explores the difference in the career outcomes of 430 social workers that have been a mentor and protege, a mentor but not a protege, a protege but not a mentor, or neither a protege nor a mentor. Career success, career satisfaction, and income level were used as outcome measures. The results indicate significant main effects for being a protege and for being a mentor on career success and career satisfaction, but mentorship was significant on income level only for the mentor. Overall, mentorship can be an important factor in facilitating the career development of both proteges and mentors. Empirical investigation of gender and racial dynamics involved in mentorship is recommended.

For more than a decade there has been "much ado about mentors" (Roche, 1979,) in both the popular media and the professional literature. Studies from the fields of business and education and organizational and developmental psychology currently predominate in the scholarly literature on mentorship (for example, Kanter, 1977; Kram, 1985; Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee, 1978; Phillips-Jones, 1982). In contrast, little information exists about mentor relationships among social workers. What is known is largely from anecdotal or conceptual accounts (for example, Berger, 1990; Faver, Fox and Shannon, 1983; Richey, Gambrill, and Blythe,

1988; Taibbi, 1983) and a few empirical investigations (for example, Ezell and dewahn, 1980; York, Henley, and Gamble, 1988). Nonetheless, there has been remarkable consistency across the literature in reporting that mentor relationships are facilitative of--if not essential to--the career development of both men and women.

A. Andrew Olson in *Management Review*, April, 1994 Section: *Career Strategies Long-Term Networking: A Strategy For Career Success* give a statement that for America's top executives, successful networking in the '90s means assembling a focused, highly select group of advisors, much like a president's cabinet, who can help them assess situations, refine strategies, make decisions and define their executive style. The soft economy, downsizing and flattened corporate hierarchies have resulted in American executives with significantly less career security than they had five years ago. At the same time, they face intense pressure to make correct decisions and perform successfully or they will face severe consequences. '90s-Style Networking. Networking is not a new concept, but it has evolved significantly since the 1980s. Some executives, particularly at lower levels, still view networking as a short-term activity leading to a specific goal like a new job, promotion or career change.

There is more to be gained from a long-term network than job leads: It is a resource for building expertise, solving current problems and gaining an outside perspective. Today, networking--as practiced by some of America's top executives--is a long-term, two-way interaction, which includes shared ideas and a personal relationship based on common experience. Stockpiling contacts for job changes is the least important aspect of career networking. Most top executives build long-term

career networks through ongoing, meaningful relationships with other executives and professionals. They talk to them regularly over an extended period of time. Many managers are convinced their networks were a critical factor in career development, allowing them to gain advice, let off steam, and develop judgment and executive perspective. Motivating yourself to build a network of outside advisors when your career is progressing successfully is difficult. But to gain the important outside perspective that will help you better manage your career, networking is the only consistent strategy that really works

Dr. Gregory Keith (1992) had investigated the relationship of a major career transition-- in this case an international transfer--to the expectations of long-term career success held by individuals in organizations. The relationship of three stages of the career transition--anticipation, fulfillment, and termination--to career success expectations was the central issue of this study. Career success was operationalized as three separate dimensions, including organizationally focused career success, professional career success, and success in balancing the demands of work and non-work activities. Of fundamental interest in this relationship were:

- (1) The extent of the individual's previous international work experience;
- (2) The value ascribed to international work experience by the individual and important others;
- (3) The frequency of communication with supervisors, peers, and mentors in the home country offices of the firm during the foreign assignment, and; (4) the career success orientations of the respondents. This study also explored the influence of a number of demographic variables on the principal variables of the study. The

Career Success Expectations Scale was developed to measure expectations of professional, organizational, and balanced career success.

Millicent E. Poole, Janice Langan-Fox and Mary Omodei,(1993) in their study try to seek to draw together the scattered literature on perceived career success and to develop a theoretical framework which concerns 'striving to know and feel good about oneself' as a primary goal of adult life. Results of a longitudinal study of perceived career success involving some 3000 subjects are presented. A LISREL analysis was performed on model variables contrasting the importance of two aspects of Raynor's theory of personality functioning and change (1982), subjective and objective criteria in determining the dependent variable 'perceived success'. It was hypothesized that subjective criteria, for example being satisfied in one's job, would be a more important determinant of perceived success than objective criteria such as attainment. The parameter estimates, which were obtained, supported the overall thrust of the hypothesized model. However, support was not found for a number of hypothesized relationships, such as sizable effects of external constraints on subjective and objective factors and the effects of attainment on work satisfaction. The results are discussed in terms of the sample of men and women used in the study and in terms of further development of a career success theory. In the past, the career literature has used the term 'objective' career to refer to the observed progress of an individual through an organization or occupation and has mostly involved extrinsic measures such as occupational grouping, responsibility, pay, class, etc. On the other hand, the subjective career generally refers to a more individual (or phenomenological) perspective and involves intrinsic measures such as satisfaction in the job, interests, feelings about occupational environments, etc. Although the

literature recognizes this distinction, it is with the objective career that most theories are concerned and the subjective view appears to be an important but neglected component of career'.

According to Feldman (1985, 1988), the increased politicization of organizations and the fiercer competition for good jobs lead increasing numbers of employees to pursue advancement through image management, social relationships, and personal manipulation rather than by means of effective performance. Employees who adopt such strategies hold careerist attitudes (Feldman, 1985) toward their work. Despite the prevalence of careerist attitudes, it remains unclear whether or not such attitudes improve employees' chances for career success, probably because the relationship between careerist attitudes and career success is moderated by a number of circumstances that vary across research settings (Feldman, 1988).

Christopher Orpen (1996) looked from another aspect and studied the effects of networking behavior (managerial networking) on managerial career success. Managerial networking refers to the process of building up and maintaining a set of informal, cooperative relationships with persons other than the manager's immediate superior and subordinates in the expectation that such relationships will help or assist the manager to perform his or her job better (Kaplan, 1984; Mueller, 1990). In some taxonomies of managerial behavior, networking is a distinct and separate category, covering activities such as socializing before and after formal meetings, conducting tours and entertaining visitors, doing favors, providing mentoring and advice, forming alliances and cliques, attending and organizing social functions, calling and visiting people, engaging in informal conversation about non work topics, and passing on

gossip and information important to another manager (Kotter, 1982). In Orpen's study, he examined whether such networking behaviors are related to the success of managers' careers. Although networks have the potential to enhance managerial careers, following Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, and Weick (1980), he believed that whether or not that enhancement occurs depends on how much managers need cooperation and support from others in the network to do their job effectively. As was made clear by the results of the well-known studies of managerial jobs by Mintzberg (1986) and Stewart (1990), there are some situations in which all the resources needed for managers to be effective are under the managers' own control or can be entirely supplied by their superiors or subordinates. However, as those researchers have made equally clear, there are other situations in which only persons in the wider network of relationships (rather than the managers, their superiors, or subordinates) can supply what the managers require for effective job performance.

Margaret Hilton Bahniuk, Susan E. Kogler Hill And Holly J. Darus, (1996) they had done a study to determine the extent to which communication support (both inside and outside the workplace) contribute to career success. A survey was administered to a random probability sample (N = 418) of the full-time employed population in a major metropolitan area. Results supported a hierarchical model, which accounted for 72.20% of the variance in career success. In conjunction with facilitative home support, career success can be enhanced when the employee utilizes both formal and informal relationships, receives abundant job feedback and important organizational information, and has multi-channel access to important sources of information.

As a result of these studies, a model was developed that attempted to explain the relationship between various types of connection and information power and job success (Hill, Bahniuk, and Dobos, 1994). This study has adapted this power-gaining model to include other important relationships suggested by these previous studies. This study explores connection power and information power in the workplace and their relative effects on career success. Previous studies were limited by their specialized samples of college faculty, managers, and professionals. This study extends this research by using a broad-based sample from the general population. In addition, this study builds upon the previous model and findings by taking into account an employee's power orientation, the support received from the home front, and access to the dominant coalition. This present study seeks to replicate, expand, and further develop the power-gaining model of communication.

Newcomers to the workplace who have as a mentor an influential senior manager should logically have improved prospects of promotions and salary increases (Hall, 1985; Schein, 1980). However, the effects of a mentoring relationship on one's career are not definitive (Kram, 1992) because none of the studies concerning this issue have had a longitudinal design. Therefore Christopher Orpen has done another study, *The Effects Of Mentoring On Employees' Career Success*. His study was designed to address this deficiency. The findings suggest that the amount of vocational mentoring, but not personal mentoring, received by these participants during the first few months of their employment was associated with greater career success in the same organization over the next 4 years.

According to Pfeffer (1983), the demography of an organization's members may influence many behavioral patterns and outcomes, including promotions and salary attainment. Thus, demographic variables need to be taken into account when investigating the predictors of career success. Several studies have found that demographic variables explain more variance in career success than other sets of influences (Gattiker and Larwood, 1988, 1989; Gould and Penley, 1984). One of the most obvious and consistent findings regarding demographic influences is that age positively predicts objective success (Cox and Nkomo, 1991; Gattiker and Larwood, 1988, 1989; Gutteridge, 1973; Harrell, 1969; Jaskolka et al., 1985), presumably because extrinsic outcomes accrued over time. Another relatively consistent finding is that married individuals achieve higher levels of objective success than unmarried individuals (Judge and Bretz, 1994; Pfeffer and Ross, 1982). As Pfeffer and Ross (1982) pointed out, marriage may act as a signal to organizations of the existence of positive attributes in the individual, such as stability, responsibility, and maturity (Bloch and Kuskin, 1978). Furthermore, spouses often act as resources for managers because they can assist with household responsibilities, offer emotional support, and provide consultation on job-related matters (Pfeffer, 1982). On the other hand, a spouse with a job outside the home diminishes the resources that can be devoted to the manager's career (Pfeffer, 1982). Thus, marital status should positively predict objective success where as having a spouse employed outside the home should negatively predict objective career success (Pfeffer 1982). Additionally, research has suggested that because hours devoted to dependent care and other household responsibilities represent time away from work, the time spent on such responsibilities negatively affects career success (Bielby, 1988). Thus, time devoted to dependent responsibilities should negatively predict objective career success.

Charles A. O'Reilly III and Jennifer A. Chatman (1994)had measured the effects of motivation and ability on the early career success of a sample of Master's of Business Administration (MBA) graduates in the early years of their careers. They argue that performance is a joint effect of two important individual characteristics: general cognitive ability and motivation. General cognitive ability, which is representative of the general population, refers to individual differences in tasks or pursuits that demand mental effort, such abstraction, rule inference, generalization, and manipulating or transforming problems. Motivation is conceptualized as a stable mental state that energizes human behavior. Results show that the combination of high general cognitive ability and motivation is significantly associated with earlier career success. MBAs, who were both smarter and worked harder were more successful in their job search upon graduation, were earning higher salaries, had more rapid pay increases, and received more promotions in their early careers. These findings add to the mounting evidence that studying enduring individual characteristics is critical to predicting behavior."

The overall results of the study show that it is the interaction of motivation and general cognitive ability that most strongly predicts early career success for the MBA graduates studied here. Neither GCA nor trait motivation (i.e., conscientiousness) alone is a good predictor of early management success.

2.3 Manager's Philosophy

McGregor's *The Human Side of Enterprise* classified two types of management philosophies that shape organizational behavior as well as affect employee motivation. His Theory X postulate that manager sees employees as not having any ambition or desire to work and Theory Y postulate managers see employees as having a need to be challenged and to seek self actualization are still considered substantial theorems for discussing manager profiles.

Like McGregor's research, the works of Argysis and Likert are based upon social psychologist Abraham Maslow's "hierarchy of needs" theory. Maslow developed the position that human beings have a significant need for self-actualization. Argysis attacked the management profession for ignoring this factor and for a behavior towards workers as "suited to the capacities and characteristics of the child rather than the adult". Likert advocated that participation in decision making by employee's produces a more profitable working environment than do conventional "top down" approaches. This literature contributed greatly to the increase of organizational thought and human resources management within American corporations.

Most recently, the field of business business administration has been faced with the growing complexities of an international marketplace. Scholars of organizational development and human resources management have sought methods to increase worker productivity in the American company. The most intriguing research has pointed toward Japanese corporations as organizations with high

employee motivation and subsequently, quality products. This prominent writing of this kind has been the work of William Ouchi. Ouchi has advanced Theory Z, an organizational philosophy based upon “employ trust, subtlety and intimacy. Managers in Z companies like Sony and IBM Japan, place ultimate confidence in employees to produce important decision making policies and implementation activities. Theory Z extends the attributes of McGregor’s Theory Y to include the manager’s delegation of innovation and implementation and the interdependency of the worker-supervisor relationship within the environment.

American management creates controls to reach specific objectives. The organizational culture creates the control for Japanese management. Americans write goals and objectives, then create the control system that supposedly will guide them to those specific objectives. However, in the U.S., all too often actions do not match words. Japanese controls are part of an organization's culture. The objectives represent values of the owners, employees, customers, and government. The movement toward objectives is defined by a set of beliefs about what kind of solutions tend to work well in the industry or firm.

The benefits of the participative approach or consensus decision-making are well known: commitment to the decision by those who will have to carry it out; more creative solutions and more effective implementation (Morgan, 1989). The Japanese system goes much deeper than just *Quality Circles*; of 6-8 people representing different parts of the organization, sitting around brainstorming and devising courses of action. Managers and supervisors spend a large percentage of their time with their employees and rely considerably on consultative decision making (Beck and Hillmar,

1986). However Japanese managers admit that while they may be slow in decision making, Americans are slow in implementation.

Douglas J. Watson and Bettye B. Burkhalter in their article "*Developing A theory Z Culture In Local Government*" illustrates how a Theory Z culture was developed and successfully implemented in an American local government setting.

Since chief executive officers have the responsibility to ensure the organization's effectiveness, they also have the primary responsibility for developing new cultures. Because of their positions, and influence, they are the guiding force for the organizational culture whether they realize it or not (Harris, 1988). Throughout the popular literature, there was an emphasis on planned cultural change which can be carried out in a rational manner (Dyer, 1985). For example, Peters and Waterman (1982) examined ways executives have created excellence in their companies, Ouchi (1981) described the steps leaders must take to make their firms Theory Z organizations, and Deal and Kennedy (1982) discussed the creation of new heroes or new myths to change culture. Academic literature, however, recognized that the process of changing culture is not a simple one. Wilkins and Patterson (1985) pointed out that changing culture is much more than simply making sure that a company is instilled with the eight basic attributes of excellence: a bias for action, close to the customer, autonomy and entrepreneurship, productivity through people, hands-on, value drive, stick to the knitting, simple form, lean staff, and simultaneous loose-tight properties (Peters & Waterman, 1982). Despite the heavy emphasis on the private sector, many of the elements of the Theory Z culture are found in public sector organizations: such as the availability of lifetime employment. Others can be developed by a management team that is committed to fair and responsible treatment

of organizational members, employee involvement in the workplace, two-way communication between management and labor, employees' personal development and recognition, and promotion of camaraderie.

Research in organizational behavior and human resources seems to indicate one important distinction between Japanese Z philosophy and American Z philosophy – the significance of the manager as a “symbolic leader” within the U.S. working environment. This characteristic of the American work place has been the central focus of recent best sellers as well as academic research on American “company cultures”. According to Terrence E. Deal and Allen A. Kennedy’s (1982) *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*, it is the symbolic manager who takes “the lead in shaping and supporting the culture”. Deal and Kennedy argue that the successful company is led by persons able to get their workers to recognize, believe and respond to the values of the organization. The symbolic manager not only has to become a hero, but also reward heroism by employees. Rituals are ceremonial expressions of company values. The symbolic leader must structure events to reiterate company doctrines. The art of symbolic managing lies in the ability to diagnose cultural traits within an organization, to allow for the implementation of strategic decisions and changes throughout the corporation, and to monitor the cultural life of a company.

While the quantitative assessment from Ray Robert Alan’s (1986) study “ *An Investigation of Management Philosophy, Communication Knowledge and Symbolic Leadership Style of Radio Station General Managers*” showed the results that;